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ABSTRACT

The potential of nonverbal communication as a field of inquiry for educators is explored in this paper. Following a brief introduction, the first section of the paper discusses basic concepts in nonverbal communication, beginning with two related definitions and a review of research. The functional significance of nonverbal communication is considered and different ways of dividing up the field for analysis are identified. The paper then describes and reviews several major subsystems of nonverbal communication: kinesics (the meaning of movement), proxemics (communication through the use of space), artifactual communication (communication through modification of the appearance), vocalics (the meaning of voice quality), tactile communication (using touch), and olfactory communication (using smell). Examples of nonverbal behavior that can be observed in schools are provided next. The document concludes with a review of the writings of several "educational revisionists." Ways of using nonverbal communication skills to test the accuracy of these writers' ideas are suggested. The writers include Carnoy, Freire, Kozol, Griffin, Fanon, Greer, Henry, Glasser, and Durkheim. A 74-item bibliography is appended. (PGD)

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ADMINISTRATIVE AND MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVES ON NONVERBAL COMMUNICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The material is a review of the major domains of nonverbal communications with applications for school administrators and school managers. Various facets of nonverbal communication are examined: kinesics, proxemics, artifactual, vocalic, tactile, and olfactory. Nonverbal behavior is traced back to Pericles Diamandi of Pylaros in the Ionian Islands. The writings of Watson, Ruch, and Keller are examined to establish a link between nonverbal behavior and emotion.

Research pertaining to the kinesic communication modality is reviewed. The facial, gestural, and postural modalities are discussed. Proxemics, the study of how man unconsciously structures and uses space to communicate, is reviewed beginning with the research of Edward T. Hall.

Next, the artifactual communication system is discussed in terms of what man wears or does to his or her body to modify appearance. The writings of Kretschmer, Wells, Siegel, and Molloy are examined. Vocalic, tactile, and olfactory systems are examined in light of perception and interpersonal relations. Leathers nonverbal rating instrument is discussed. Finally nonverbal communication is examined at a general, philosophical level. Especially noted throughout the document are nonverbal applications for school administrators and school managers.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVES ON NONVERBAL COMMUNICATIONS

Introduction

Pericles Diamandi was born in 1868 at Pylaros in the Ionian Islands. About the age of 20, he began to realize that he had exceptional powers of mental calculation. His abilities were studied at length by Alfred Binet and are topics of historical record. Rightly or wrongly, Diamandi believed that the face of an individual represented one of the modalities by which their psychology was expressed. Because of his exceptional visual memory, he formed a mental collection of the faces of innumerable people he had known; hence when he met a person he could, he stated, describe that person's state of mind.

"During my ten years of travel throughout the world," Diamandi confided to Gaston Mery, director of the Echodu Merveilleux, "I had opportunities of observing faces of all categories. In this way a sort of cinematographic museum was formed in my mind, extending over an immense variety of types. When I study a face its image evokes all the corresponding images, and these stand out as from a group and appear before me; I have only to compare. I know that this wrinkle, that fold of the lips, that expression of the eyes, that shape of the nose are the mark of this or that psychological disposition, the stigmata of this or that way of thinking or feeling. It is true that I had to work by trial and error for a long time, and that for certain traits of character I still do. But on balance, if in face reading I have not succeeded in attaining the absolute

precision, which I shall try to improve more and more by new observations, but which already seems to me to be far from negligible" (Tocquet, 1961, pp. 20-21).

Other writers advanced ideas which emphasized the behavior and expression of emotions, as opposed to the subjective experiences of the affective domain. Even as animals preparing for attack instinctively showed their teeth, growled and showed a bristling of hair, such behavior was seen in man as the tendency to sneer or grit his teeth when he was experiencing hostility (Ruch, 1971, p. 387).

John B. Watson (1878-1958) argued that human beings may be provided during infancy with much of their complex emotional equipment. Much of this acquisition is through the mechanism of conditioning-plus-transfer. All the complicated emotional responses common in adult behavior (shyness, hate, shame, pride, jealousy, etc.) were seen to be the combinations and permutations of the three elemental response patterns of fear, rage and love (Keller, 1965, p. 67). Emotion was thus viewed as an hereditary reaction. Emotion per se was posited to be a combination of "implicit hereditary responses" (the various gland secretions, circulatory changes and the like) and "explicit hereditary responses" (man's observable instinctive and emotional reactions as seen, for instance, in sneezing, blinking, grasping and dodging and in love, fear and rage). Watson believed that the former category was predominant in explaining emotions (Ibid., pp. 90, 98).

The word for heart in ancient Hebrew and Chaldee is leb. The word is used very widely for the feelings, the will, and even the

intellect (Strong, 1890, p. 58). The Hebrew/Chaldee understanding of the origin of emotions can be understood as a concomitant of the human intent.

It is posited thus, from the aforementioned review of literature, that there is a close link between behavior and emotion. Presumably the nonverbal channels (for example facial display, kinesics, paralanguage, proxemics, etc.) can indeed be scrutinized and assessed in determining a person's true feelings and attitudes, regardless of his observable behavior to the contrary.

Yet, it must be understood that the aforementioned assessment of potentiality is not extremely lucid in all practical settings. It is known, for example, that a particular nonverbal response can reflect any of several emotions--consider crying for example. If there is not then a specific one-to-one correspondence between a behavioral or facial expression and a particular emotion, is it not reasonable to suspect that nonverbal behavior does not provide a very reliable communication system? In fact, the results of many early studies in facial expressions tend to validate this hypothesis. Subjects, who were asked to look at pictures of people's faces and indicate the emotion they felt was being expressed, showed a large amount of variability in their judgments--suggesting that people are not really very accurate in judging emotions (Ruch, 1971, p. 384).

These conflicting sequences then aptly describe the confusion which permeates any examination of nonverbal communication. The first part of this document provides school administrators with some basic concepts in the area of nonverbal communication, even at the risk of being simplistic. In the second part of this document

various practical applications presented in the nonverbal literature and selected texts will be explored. It is felt that this approach will establish a general foundation in the nonverbal-communications area and will provide a practical, operational approach to assist school administrators and school managers.

Initially, two definitions of nonverbal communication will be offered, though they will be necessarily general in nature. This will be followed by a discussion of the functions, classes and dimensions of nonverbal phenomena.

Review of Research

Harrison states that nonverbal communication is based on "definable communication systems that use explicable nonverbal signs with observable semantic, syntactic and pragmatic consequences" (Harrison, 1973, pp. 93-115). Koch offers a similar definition by stating that "any message sent or received, independent of the spoken or written word, is an instance on nonverbal language" (Koch, 1971, pp. 288-294).

What then is the functional significance of nonverbal communication? The answer is complex (Wells, 1985). Most basically, however, the function of communication is the exchange of meaning (Elsea, 1984). Nonverbal communication has a functional significance related to the purposes, accuracy, and efficiency with which meanings are exchanged (Leathers, 1976, p. 3). More specifically, Leathers has stated that nonverbal communication has great functional significance for six major reasons (Ibid., pp. 4-7). First, nonverbal, not verbal, variables are the major determinants of meaning in the interpersonal

context. Birdwhistell states that "probably no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by the words" (Birdwhistell, 1970, p. 158). Mehrabian goes even further in estimating tht 93 percent of the total force and impact of a message is due to nonverbal factors (Mehrabian, 1968, pp. 51-52).

Second, emotions and feelings are more accurately exchanged by nonverbal than verbal means. Davitz concludes that "it is the nonverbal, of the formal characteristics of one's environment...that primarily determine the emotional meaning of one's world" (Davitz, 1964, p. 201).

Third, the nonverbal portion of communication conveys intentions and meanings that are relatively free of distortion, deception and confusion. Verbal cues may be consciously concealed or distorted; however, nonverbal cues may reveal behavior which occurs on a level without conscious control.

Fourth, nonverbal cues serve a metacommunicative purpose that reinforces high quality communication. Facial expressions, for example, have been found to have the greatest metacommunicative value. Since nonverbal cues serve the primary metacommunicative function in interpersonal communication, the appropriate decoding of nonverbal cues is one of the most important elements in reaching high quality communication (Leathers, 1972, pp. 166-173).

Fifth, nonverbal cues represent a much more efficient means for communicating than do verbal cues. Sixth, nonverbal cues represent a most effective vehicle for suggestion. In review then, the six points have illustrated the functional significance of

nonverbal communication. It is posited that a separation of the verbal and nonverbal components of communication would not be well advised. Indeed nonverbal cues (gestures, facial display, kinesics, paralanguage, proxemics, etc.) reflect verbal cues. However it is not assumed that the kinds of information conveyed by nonverbal behavior are the same as those conveyed by verbal behavior.

In a global sense, Swensen combines the works of Mahl, Ekman and Friesen to arrive at nine kinds of relationships between verbal and nonverbal communications. They are as follows: the nonverbal act can... (1) express the same meaning as the verbal act... (2) anticipate future amplification of the concurrent verbal content... (3) convey meaning that is contradictory to the verbal material... (4) be related to the more global aspects of the interaction, rather than to the specific part of the verbal message... (5) accent a specific part of the verbal act (6) fill or explain silences, communicating that a person has not finished speaking or is reaching for words (7) function to maintain or to regulate the communicative flow, indicating that one is listening, bored, ready to speak, etc. (8) be a substitute for a word or phrase in a verbal message and (9) can be a delayed registration of content that has already been expressed verbally...(Swensen, 1973, pp. 85-86). Thus Swensen's classification serves to illustrate the kinds of information derived from nonverbal communication per se. It cannot be stressed enough, however, that no particular nonverbal signal can be taken as having a particular meaning. The meaning of any nonverbal cue depends on the culture, the situation, and other related factors.

What then are the specific classes and dimensions to which these

functional relations apply? Ruch has noted that experimental research in nonverbal communication has focused on four general types of expressions: (1) facial display (since the most important overt expression of emotion is in the face); (2) kinesics (communication through body movement, postures, body positions, gestures, etc.); (3) paralanguage (vocal communication but not verbal communication--that is, voice qualities such as intensity or pitch, rate of speech, hesitations, errors, and other nonfluencies like yawns and laughs; and (4) proxemics (focusing on spatial distance and orientation of people) (Ruch, 1971, p. 383).

Scheflen has classified the channels of face-to-face communication into two groups: language modalities (linguistics and paralanguage) and nonlanguage modalities (kinesic, tactile, odorific, territorial, and artifactual) (Scheflen, 1967, pp. 8-12). Linguistics, concerned with language itself, would not be a topic of nonverbal communication, though paralanguage (since it encompasses all the aspects of sound production that are vocal but not verbal) would be. Paralanguage is what one person communicates to another via sounds which are not a part of the words themselves. All the nonlanguage modalities would be topics of nonverbal assessment: (1) kinesic, (2) tactile (concerned with communication through touch), (3) odorifics (described as communication through smell), (4) territorial (also labeled as proxemics), and (5) artifactual (concerned with communication through decorations, dress, and props).

Ruch agrees with Swensen in noting that paralanguage, kinesics and proxemics have been the object of most experimental research

(Ruch, 1971, p. 383; Swensen, 1967, p. 83).

Finally, what are the basic dimensions of these nonverbal categories? Mehrabian concluded, after reviewing the nonverbal literature and factor-analysis data, that there were three dimensions: evaluation, potency or status, and responsiveness (Mehrabian, 1970, pp. 248-257). The first dimension tells how well one person likes another. The second dimension reveals how the two people rank on a status hierarchy, while dimension three reveals how much one person is interested in and involved with another person. Mehrabian concluded that, although earlier researchers labeled the dimensions of nonverbal behavior differently, there were nevertheless only three basic dimensions. Table 1 shows the way in which Mehrabian equated the dimensions (Swensen, 1973, pp. 84-85).

Table 1 DIMENSIONS OF NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

Mehrabian 1970	Schlosberg 1954	Williams & Sundene 1965	Osgood 1966
Evaluation	Pleasant-Unpleasant	Evaluation	Pleasantness
Potency	Attention-Rejection	Social Control	Control
Responsiveness	Activation	Activity	Intensity

At this point, selected literature pertaining to behavior and emotion has been reviewed. It is concluded that the nonverbal channels of behavior can indeed provide information regarding a person's true feelings and attitudes. It is known, however, that

there is a large amount of variability among subjects' judgments of nonverbal cues. Nonverbal communication has been defined, stressing that one must take a holistic view of the communication process. To understand the meaning of any particular aspect of the nonverbal process, it is essential that one study it within its situational context. The functional significance of nonverbal communication has been examined to show that the significance is related to the purposes, accuracy and efficiency with which meanings are exchanged. Major emphasis in research has been placed on facial expressions because of the important role of the the face in interpersonal communication. Some researchers believe the face functions denotatively, asserting that eight to ten distinctive classes of meaning can be conveyed facially. In contrast, other researchers believe that the face functions connotatively. These researchers see facial expression as being composed of three to six different dimensions of meaning which are conveyed through semantic space. The nine kinds of relationships between verbal and nonverbal communications have been reviewed. Finally the classes and dimensions of nonverbal phenomena have been examined.

There can be no doubt that nonverbal language plays an important role in our educational system. Koch, in his 1971 study, observed thirty-five nonverbal behaviors in the classroom, including the ones which follow: (1) gestures, (2) hand movements, (3) foot movements, (4) voice variations, (5) silences, (6) facial expressions, (7) eye movement, (8) head movement, (9) posture, (10) territoriality, (11) proximity, (12) tactility, (13) use of time, (14) status moves,

(15) room arrangement, and (16) hesitations. It is beyond the scope of this material to provide a detailed analysis of each of these areas. It is likewise in excess of length considerations to examine all the major nonverbal subsystems in detail (kinesic, artifactual, vocalic, tactile/olfactory and telepathic). Rather a general view of several of these areas will be provided.

Kinesics

It is to be recalled that the major components of the kinesic communication system are the facial, gestural, and postural modalities--modalities which convey meaning by movement. Kinesic research begins with the kine, the smallest identifiable unit of motion. Kines are combined to yield the kinemorph, a combination in any part of the body which conveys a meaning. From a practical perspective, seeing that the sources of movement in the body are almost unlimited, Birdwhistell has identified eight sources of potentially significant body movement: (1) total head, (2) face, (3) neck, (4) trunk, (5) shoulder-arm-wrist, (6) hand, (7) hip-joint-leg-ankle, and (8) foot (Birdwhistell, 1952, p. 17).

Research by Woodworth in 1938 suggested that the face communicated six basic classes of meaning: (1) happiness, (2) suffering, (3) surprise, (4) determination, (5) disgust, and (6) contempt (Woodworth, 1938). Of 390 subjects using six classes of meaning, 366 correctly identified the communication of happiness by facial means, suffering (325), determination (310), surprise (304), disgust (294) and contempt (190) (Levy and Schlosberg, 1960, p. 122).

The basic classes of meaning communicated facially have pre-

sently been expanded to ten: (1) happiness, (2) surprise, (3) fear, (4) anger, (5) sadness, (6) disgust, (7) contempt, (8) interest, (9) bewilderment, and (10) determination. Thus the question exists: can one really improve his potential to evaluate facial communication? Current evidence suggests a strong potential for marked improvement of this modality of human interaction. Izard sites research which suggests that one may improve his ability to communicate facially by as much as 51 percent, though the range is from 5.9 to 51 percent (Izard, 1971, p. 216).

Leathers has included a copy of his FMST (Facial Meaning Sensitivity Test) in his book, Nonverbal Communication Systems. The test is composed of a set of photographs of forty different facial expressions and is a three-part test. Most individuals markedly improve both their decoding and encoding skills after use of the FMST (Leathers, 1976, pp. 26-32). It should be recalled, however, that one may find difficulty in discerning the degree of any expression. He will most likely just perceive the given expression and will thus find difficulty in examining relationships between different meanings as well. The conceptual framework of nonverbal communications is thus apparently weak in this regard.

Nevertheless the face is capable of conveying interest, positive reinforcement, involvement, a sense of control over one's self and the immediate environment, and thoughtful deliberation. At the same time, the face is capable of communicating disinterest, withdrawal, lack of control, negative reinforcement, and a visceral rather than a thoughtful reaction to various messages. As one works with the FMST test, his ability to communicate facially (encode and decode) can be increased. Walk with the principal and

superintendent and watch the way students and teachers look at them. Such observation can tell you much about the men.

Also included in kinesics are gestures. Scheflen has suggested that there are three basic units of bodily movement: (1) point, (2) position, and (3) presentation. The point is the nonverbal equivalent of a person trying to make a point in discussion. Several points (gestures) are combined to yield a position, which is marked by a gross postural shift involving at least half the body. Finally the presentation is the totality of one person's positions in a given interaction (Scheflen, 1964, pp. 320-321).

Galloway states that one can communicate at least seven different types of meanings by gestures: (1) encouraging/restricting, (2) congruity/incongruity, (3) responsive/unresponsive, (4) positive/negative affectivity, (5) attentive/unattentive, (6) facilitating/unreceptive, and (7) supportive/disapproving (Galloway, 1968, pp. 172-175). A power dimension is associated with highly expansive gestures. As you deal with individuals, practice watching their gestures to see if the gestures correspond to the verbal messages which they are presenting. Consistency between gestures, and between gestures and verbal meaning, is generally considered to be the best cue as to whether an individual is being truthful. Remember that context is very important in understanding any nonverbal cue. One should review the major functions of nonverbal communication to understand the values of nonverbal cues in general.

Ones posture is also revealing. Leaning forward, for example, signals interest. Watch the way a person sits and walks. Does the demeanor project an authoritative image? What one might interpret

as an haughty posture might really be a back problem. If a person is speaking, and is not standing erect-- such a posture can signal nervousness. Scheflen maintains that there are three basic types of postures: (1) inclusiveness or noninclusiveness-- the body is placed in such a way as to exclude another person (clearly communicating one's intent to limit or avoid interaction); (2) vis-a-vis or parallel bodily orientation-- the vis-a-vis orientation is associated with the exchange of rather intimate feelings while the parallel bodily orientation conveys a desire to communicate with the entire group; and (3) congruent or incongruent posture-- when one assumes a posture similar to that of the person with whom he is interacting, he is most likely stating that he agrees with the person and that the individual is of equal status. Thus these three postures can communicate involvement or withdrawal, feeling or unresponsiveness, and agreement or disagreement (Scheflen, 1964, pp. 326-329).

Approach and immediacy indicate preference, positive evaluation and liking, while avoidance and nonimmediacy indicate lack of preference, dislike, and in some cases, fear (Mehrabian, 1971, p. 114).

Power is associated with highly expansive postures which connote superior status on the part of the communicator. Low power, and thus low status, is associated with a rigid and upright posture, extreme bodily tension, and a symmetrical stance, (Ibid., pp. 115-116). Also, one communicates responsiveness by posture. A responsive communicator may change his kind of gesture or bodily posture as well as the rate with which he moves from one posture or gesture to another. Responsiveness is measured by the quantity of change

in bodily activity: a fixed body can be described as unresponsive. Thus ideas are prevalent in the literature that posture communicates immediacy/nonimmediacy, responsiveness/unresponsiveness, agreement/disagreement, and power or status. Gestures and postures are also understood to reflect intensity rather than a specific kind of emotion.

Briefly, considering eye movement, it has been observed that the eyes, as the mirror of the soul, reflect large amounts of information. One is more likely to look at a communicator who is expressing positive emotions like happiness, pleasure, and ageement than negative emotions like contempt, disgust, or disappointment. Individuals maintain more eye contact with those from whom they expect approval and support. Dominant women exhibit more eye contact than dominant men. As the eye contact decreases, so does the amount of self-disclosure and intimacy between the communicators. Our culture expects a person of lower authority to look away in interactional eye contact before the person of greater authority.

Police forces and security divisions are trained to observe people's eye contact as mirrors of fear, for eye-pupil dilation, or constriction. Again the power of a person's being can be channeled through his eyes to discipline individuals, show contempt, or express admiration and love. Sustained eye contact is considered rude in our culture, but has various psychological/psychiatric uses. Introduce a subject, and watch the people you are talking to. Their eyes will tell you about their feelings, conflicts, or dispositions. A stern look for example is often enough to force a student or adult to be truthful in a situation. Watch the expression

of a school personnel as they greet their employers. Observe students meeting teachers in the halls at school.

In teaching or speaking, eye contact will give you feedback on several different levels: (1) the addressee moves his eyes upward without vocalizing a message (the addressee is thinking and the addressor should wait); (2) a blank look with no speaking (confusion exists; clarification is needed); (3) the addressee maintains eye contact with a slow head nod (there is understanding, so proceed talking); and (4) the addressee maintains eye contact and smiles (the addressee understands and has nothing to add) (Leathers, 1976, p. 207). Obviously the applications of kinesics are varied and extensive.

Proxemics

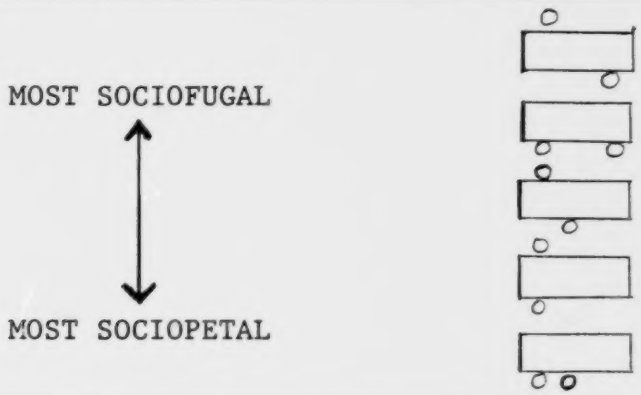
Even as a need to understand the meaning of movement resulted in research known as kinesics, the need to understand how man communicates through his use of space produced proxemics. The innovator of proxemic research was Edward T. Hall, who coined the term "proxemics." In its broadest perspective, proxemics reflects how man unconsciously structures microspace and uses space to communicate (Hall, 1963, p. 1003). Even as anthropologists study the ruins of ancient Roman and Grecian cities to understand the minds of those peoples, so today one can investigate proxemics to understand modern man's personality.

Even as it is felt that eye contact and directness of facing constitute a subsystem which is operating in the human sphere, so closeness and touching constitute another. Hall identifies

eight types of sensory inputs which he says determine interpersonal distance. They are: (1) postural-sex identifiers (simply suggest whether a man or woman is communicating while standing, sitting or prone); (2) sociofugal-sociopetal orientation (how directly two individuals are facing each other); (3) kinesthetic factors; (4) touch code; (5) retinal combinations; (6) thermal code; (7) olfaction code; and (8) the voice loudness scale.

Of these categories, the sociofugal-sociopetal orientation is of special importance in communication. Leathers shows that spatial relationships are most sociopetal, and most conducive to the involvement of the communicators, when the individuals are seated side by side. Conversely, sociofugal conditions are at a maximum when individuals are positioned diagionally across from one another at the ends of tables (Leathers, 1976, p. 54). Note the following diagram.

Diagram 1 SOCIOFUGAL-SOCIOPETAL DIAGRAM



For one to optimize interpersonal communications, seating,

office arrangement, and "designed barriers" are very important to consider. Recent research has shown that table barriers may have significant effects on the flow, direction, and quality of communication as well as on the postural orientation of the individuals communicating (Ibid., p. 54).

Distance between communicators is also a key in good interpersonal relations. Personal distance (the distance which an individual normally places between himself and others) is generally 1½ to 4 feet. Intimate distance is generally ½ to 1½ feet. Thus in communicating, have you ever noticed someone coming 6 to 18 inches from you (indicating conveying a private message for example) and you backed away slightly-- because your intimate body space had been violated. Might one consciously step into another's intimate body space to establish better repoire? In fact, it now seems clear that one of the quickest means of gaining the approval of those persons with whom you communicate (Rosenfeld, 1965, p. 120) and of being liked is to minimize the distance between yourself and those persons (Meisels and Guardo, 1969, p. 1171). Attitude change has been found to be greatest for the friendly speaker when he minimizes the distance between himself and his audience (Albert and Dabbs, 1970, p. 266). Available evidence does strongly imply that the types of relationships and the nature of communication between two people is strongly influenced by the distance they maintain from each other. Could distance be employed as an operational definition of interpersonal relationships?

Leathers has written: "The violation of distance norms or

expectations has perhaps its greatest impact in negatively affecting interpersonal relationships. As distance is increased between yourself and another individual, his impression of you will become less positive. Specifically, you will be viewed as less socially active, less friendly, less aggressive, less extroverted, and less dominant. While the violation of distance expectations can be highly disruptive, the potentially facilitative impact of maintaining proper distances may be even greater" (Leathers, 1976, p. 65).

Pertaining then to territorial sanctions, one should not be seen in another's territory too much. This is not to say that necessary office interaction should be overly limited. It is to say, however, that one should be aware of territorial sanctions and not exceed those limits. To establish better interpersonal relations, one can borrow an object from another's territory (for example, a book). This flow of materials from one's territory can produce better interpersonal interactions. One can eat lunch for example with another in his territory and psychologically become more acceptable to that individual.

Observe various status groups. Note that a teacher could receive a rebuking glance for coming too close to an administrator, closer than the teacher's status would allow. Also status could prohibit a teacher from touching the administrator. The use of a penetrating glance is often considered demeaning and a type of behavior used to establish dominance at the expense of the individual to whom it is directed. Generally a subordinate is to approach a superordinate. The status of the subordinate determines how closely he may approach the superordinate. The offices of admin-

istrators are typically arranged to provide cues to subordinates as to proper approaching distances.

Observe how the school administrator structures his or her territory. Is the school campus littered with paper and garbage? Is the person's office spatially disorganized or is it neat and orderly? The way a leader takes care of a building will tell you very much about the leader's mental dispostition. If the campus is littered, why didn't the principal have the students pick up the trash? An answer to this question will tell you more about the principal's philosophy. What kind of nonverbal territorial signals do you receive when you enter another's domain?

Artifactual

One's physical appearance has a pervasive impact on his self-image. It is well known that one's social and sexual success is heavily dependent on his/her attractiveness and that vocational success can often be predicted on how attractive others perceive him/her to be. The artifactual communication system then is defined to include all things that humans wear on their bodies or do to their bodies to modify appearance.

Bodily appearance is also very important in the discussion of communication by artifactual means. Julius Caesar said of Cassius that he had a lean and hungry look and thought too much. Caesar wished aloud to Antony that Cassius were heavier. It is important to consider body type, weight, and height in hiring personnel and in personnel placement. For example, taller teachers are often placed with more troublesome students. Taller individuals are often hired as managers in industry. Psychologists are employed

by criminal attorneys to produce psychological profiles of prospective jurors. body appearance defintely affects interpersonal relations. Clearly, the meaning "coming into an individual" is incorporated into the image which the individual has of himself. An employer should note weight gains or losses by his employees. Overweight often implies frustration or interpersonal conflicts.

In 1925 Kretschmer concluded that individuals may be classified into three major morphological groups: asthenic (skinny, bony and narrow body), athletic (muscular body), and pyknic (fat body) (Kretschmer, 1970, pp. 18-35). The terms ectomorphic, mesomorphic, and endomorphic are in common use today.

Wells and Siegel found that ectomorphs were perceived as ambitious, suspicious, tense and nervous, more pessimistic, inclined to be difficult and quieter. Mesomorphs were seen to be stronger, more mature, more adventurous and self-reliant. Endomorphs were more old-fashioned, weaker, more talkative, more warm-hearted and sympathetic, lazier, more good-natured and agreeable, more dependent on others, and more trusting of others (Wells and Siegel, 1961, p. 78). Recently it has been found that mesomorphs have a strong achievement need while ectomorphs are well below average in such a need. Individuals with a smaller stature are often more aggressive in life to compensate for their body size. Look for this in certain managers too. Educators should recall these findings when interacting with individuals. It is important to consider, as well, that people often act as we expect them to act (self-fulfilling prophecy). Thus the feedback you receive from people is often a mirror of your own personality. This fact makes interpersonal

relations even more vital. Next let us consider clothing artifacts.

Clothing is one of the most effective means of modifying body image. Clothing does transmit a message. One communicates his own identity by means of his visible self. Clothing has been suggested to communicate emotion, behavior, and differentiation. The clothing of various occupations communicates a specific image as well. A recent book by John T. Molloy, Dress for Success, illustrates how important clothing really is. Molloy emphasizes how the right clothes will increase one's income, boost his status, project his personality and improve his social life.

Molloy posits that the correct suit immediately establishes authority, credibility, ans likability. The darker the suit, the more authority it transmits. A black suit is more authorative than a dark blue one, although it is much too powerful and should be rarely worn because of its funeral connotations. Molloy further states that the most authorative pattern is the pinstripe, followed in order by the solid, the chalk strip, and the plaid. If one is large or has a swarthy appearance, wearing lighter shades of blue gray and beiges will trim down the authorative demeanor so people will not be frightened. Dark blue, dark gray solids, and pinstipes of both colors will give one credibility with people of the upper-middle class. Only the dark solid, however, will give one high credibility with the lower-middle class.

If you must be authorative and credible with both the upper-middle class and the lower-middle class (say you are a banker or lawyer and must deal with a variety of people), light blue and light gray solids will accomplish your goals, although light blue is generally not considered an acceptable suit for the truly con-

servative businessman.

The suits in which men are more likely to be liked are light gray and light blue solids and medium-range business plaids. Molloy concludes of the following colored suits: (1) solid navy--the upper middle-class likes it; heavy men should wear it; on thin men it's neutral; before the public it's fine; on television it's fine; large men should not wear it; small men should not wear it; if you're a weak authority figure it's excellent; if you're a strong authority figure, it's bad; (2) solid dark gray--positive with the upper-middle class, negative with the lower middle class; excellent for large men, negative for small men; before the public, it is excellent; if you're a weak authority figure, wear it; (3) dark blue pinstripe-- positive with upper-middle class, negative with lower-middle class; if you have authority problems, it is best; if you come on too strong, it's bad (Molloy, 1975, pp. 43-48).

Molloy proceeds to categorize dark gray pinstripes, medium blue solid, medium gray solid, etc. The author discusses practically all aspects of clothing. He mentions as well the influence of clothing on the work and attitudes of students. In his work in the Connecticut schools, the author concluded that students worked longer and harder for the teacher with the old-fashioned look (traditional lace shoes, always black, a conservative suit, and a conservative tie) (Ibid., p. 13).

Molloy concluded that the darker the suit, the more authority it conveyed. However, there are times when a dark color might need to be toned down so as to avoid frightening others. In patterns, pinstripes carry the most weight, followed by solids,

chalk stripes and simple, subtle plaids. Shirts should be cotton or polycotton in white, blue or pale pastels (but not pink or purple). Tie patterns should be subtle and neat. Should schools have dress codes for the faculty? Molloy's research suggests that they probably should. Salaries should incorporate this required feature as well. In any event, all school personnel should be aware of these discussions on clothing and dress appropriately for their positions.

What are the affects of accessories? They inspire confidence and bring people toward social assertiveness. Eyeglasses should conform to social standards. Tatoos are often used by an individual to mark himself as ugly and unacceptable and further isolate himself in sociey. Individuals in school administration should be aware of such facts. Tatoos are a clue to a person's attitudes (past or present).

Leathers concludes that artifactual materials are indeed excellent, for their overall affect is to produce an individual characterized by more involvement, confidence, vigor, eagerness to build trusting relationships and aggression.

Vocalic

The voice too can be used as a major force in shaping the perceived personality characteristics of the communicator. A person's voice can convey vigor, confidence and decision, or be high-pitched and quavering. A person of authority should speak forcefully; hesitancy is equivalent to weakness (lack of authority).

A person who is sad or stunned is likely to use a lower modal

pitch. Also sience may have a greater impact in conveying meanings than attributes such as loudness, rate, or pitch. If an individual asks a rather pointed question or you want to project your irritation, remain silent. The person will most likely readily sense the tension and surmise that something has been done which does not please you.

The vocalic literature suggests that the calculated use of the voice may not change your basic personality, but it may result in perceptible differences in the ways others perceive you. Allport and Cantril found that the voice was a valid indicator of personality. They found that voice attributes were accurate indicators of introversion/extroversion and ascendance/submission. Moreover, the voice was found to be a much more consistent indicator of personality characteristics than physical appearance (Allport and Cantril, 1934, p. 49).

The literature also suggests that one can, through a variety of vocal changes, make gross or subtle alterations in his personality, as perceived by listeners cued only by the person's speech. For example, variation in pitch is strongly associated with the personality characteristics of dynamism and extroversion. If one wants to be perceived as dynamic and extroverted, he may want to work at modulating his vocalic pitch (Leathers, 1976, p. 133). In a public position, such information is of obvious value. Not only can you observe if others speak to the school administrators, for example, but you can observe pitch variations in the context of dynamism.

Paravocal cues should also be noted. Paravocal communication has been classified as including rate of utterance, rhythm, hesi-

tations, and nonfluencies. Distortion of these normal sequences can imply questioning of interpersonal trust, lack of confidence, and sincerity. Listening to employees speak to the school officials can tell you about the manner in which they really view the person. Thus paravocal communication can reveal much about the emotions which the communicator is experiencing.

Tactile and Olfactory Subsystems

The sense of touch has been called "the mother of the senses." What a man experiences through touch is, perhaps, more important than most people realize. As proof, consider the size of the sensory and motor areas of the brain. The thumb, lips, and index finger take up a disproportionate amount of cerebral space (Davis, 1973, p. 154). In fact it is now known that the skin can transmit messages which convey specific information and meaning. In one documented experiment, words were flashed on a screen so briefly that the subjects could not report what they had seen. Nonetheless something in their minds did recognize every word, and this reaction was reflected by the skin (Brown, 1974, p. 52). Is the message which the face expresses the message which the brain is experiencing?

It is felt that the skin can communicate five emotions: detachment, mothering, fear, anger, and play. Though normative data is lacking which supplies a profile of a good tactile communicator, it is felt that the more touching which takes place, the more honest, open and trusting an individual will be in interpersonal communications. It is important to observe then the way people shake hands with you. Does their grip convey the message that they are

forceful or that they have "given up" in life? It appears that it is good communication strategy to shake hands and at times touch others on the shoulder or arm in interpersonal communications. Apparently some form of physical contact expedites the arrival of mutual openness and unreserve (Leathers, 1976, p. 152).

It is known too that odor is an important communication modality which operates at both the conscious and unconscious levels. Man both receives and transmits odors in the form of external chemical messages. Leaders can conscously use odors with a highly positive result. The administrator can match body fragrances with the olfactory needs of the person with whom he is communicating.

It is to be posited then that conscious use of the visual, auditory, and invisible (tactile and olfactory) nonverbal communication systems can indeed enhance communication and positively accelerate the development of good interpersonal relations. However all of these systems function together in a large proportion of instances. Therefore, from a systems analyst's viewpoint, the feedback one receives is a qualitative measure of your own communication efforts. Negative feedback would call for change on your point. Leathers introduces his Leathers Nonverbal Feedback Rating Instrument (LNFRI) as a feedback rating instrument, which provides an objective means of assessing whether corrective action should be taken by the communicatior and, if so, what kind. The feedback response is divided into four categories: involvement, feeling, analysis, and control. Each of these is represented in the following manner: involvement (the involved/withdrawn, attentive/unattentive, responsive/unresponsive, and interest/disinterest scales);

feeling (the pleased/displeased and friendly/hostile scales); analysis (the deliberative/spontaneous and analytical/impulsive scales) and control (the confident/uncertain and clear/confused scales) (Leathers, 1976, pp. 214-220). Any administrator or public school official should study Leather's photographs and utilize this information in the quest of better nonverbal interaction. The study of the major subsystems is intended to expand the communication potential of the reader and, accordingly, enable him to achieve his communication objectives. Obviously the fund of knowledge is greater for facial, gestural, and vocalic communication than it is for the tactile or olfactory modalities. Research suggests too that persons can communicate and perceive meanings much more accurately by facial than vocal means. We have a good deal of conscious control over our verbal or facial communications but much less over our use of gestures or psychophysiological responses (blushing, sighing, etc.). The image we project is largely controlled by the congruency of all the nonverbal modalities. The legs and feet are perhaps least under the conscious control of the individual. Thus the extremities provide an excellent source for nonverbal leakage and deception cues. Watch a person's extremities to perceive if he or she is restless or uneasy (shuffling of the feet for example). Following is a reproduction of some categories of nonverbal behavior. The source is Morris Cogan, University of Pittsburg (Cogan, 1973, pp. 192-193). These categories will further direct ones attention to nonverbal areas.

NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Teacher helps student carry heavy equipment to laboratory (Cogan)

Teacher pushes student (Cogan)

NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS (CONTINUED)

Teacher listens with patience and interest (Galloway)
Teacher ignores students and neither sustains nor encourages sharing information or expressing ideas (Galloway)
Teacher gives student a pat on the back (Galloway)
Quality of voice indicates pleasure or warm affection (Galloway)
Receptivity: pose or stance suggests readiness to listen (Galloway)
Teacher frowns, scowls, or looks threatening (Galloway)
Teacher responds to students' signals of fatigue (Cogan)
Teacher varies behavior in response to students' signals of attention-nonattention (Cogan)
Teacher arranges chairs, desks, etc., to insure line-of-sight for students (Cogan)
Arranges seating for comfort of students who are lame, tall, short, hard of hearing (Cogan)
Teacher varies classroom activities in relation to students' maturity, strength, psychomotor skills, interests, needs (Cogan)
Teacher pushes, shoves, strikes students (Cogan)
Teacher moves toward or away from students' territories (Galloway)
Teacher sits with, among, students, or remains separated from them--at front of room, for example (Cogan)
Teacher modifies his behavior as a result of feedback from students. Alters pace or direction of the lesson when he detects nonverbal signs of students' misunderstanding (Galloway)
Teacher responds to or ignores signs of student discomfort (Cogan)
Young female teacher smiles when meeting older adolescents in class for first time if she is in Atlanta, but not in Buffalo. Freely adapted from Birdwhistell, who notes that smiling in "particular contexts indicated 'pleasure,' in others 'humor,' in others 'ridicule,' and, in still others, 'friendliness,' or 'good manners.' Smiles have been seen to indicate 'doubt' and 'acceptance,' 'equality' and 'superordination' or 'subordination.' (Cogan)

NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR IN CLASSROOM CONTROL

Teacher remains silent in front of class until class becomes quiet (Cogan)
Teacher rises from chair, walks toward students, and remains silent in order to establish quiet (Cogan)
Teacher claps hands for order (Cogan)
Teacher rings bell, strikes or taps desk with ruler to restore silence (Cogan)
Teacher grants or withholds permissions by nod or gesture (Cogan)
Teacher reinforces by physical means (offers candy, prizes, etc.) (Cogan)

NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR AND SENSE MODALITIES OTHER THAN HEARING

Teacher teaches by having students taste, smell, touch, act, dance, walk, limp, lift, and weigh. That is, teacher uses a variety of sense modalities appropriate to different learning tasks (Cogan)

MOTION IN NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

..."When a psychiatrist (teacher or student?) sits forward in a chair this could be interpreted by the patient (student or teacher) as a preliminary to rising and leaving and therefore of non-interest.... On the other hand, a more relaxed position, sitting back in the chair, suggests an openness and interest on the part of the hearer (Cogan)

"'Things like prejudice could be the result of communication problems,' Dr. Condon said, explaining that studies show black people have a fluidity and rapidity or motion and language which makes white people uncomfortable. When you are uncomfortable in a situation you avoid it, he explained." (Cogan citing Condon)

USE OF TIME AS NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

Teacher indicates his likes and dislikes by his allocation of time to various activities (Galloway)

STUDENTS' USE OF NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

Students signal that they are ready to recite or want to volunteer: by eye contact, raising hand, nodding the head (Cogan)

Students signal that they are not paying attention: they fall asleep, read during a recitation, cover their ears with their hands, pass notes, play pencil-and-paper games, etc. (Cogan)

Finally, in this material, let us look at nonverbal communication from another vantage point. Let us consider several of the educational revisionists, looking for nonverbal information at a general, philosophical level. Though many of their criticisms can be answered, let us present them for consideration.

Martin Carnoy

Speaking of the meritocratic ideal in our schools--The "best," most "intelligent" men rise to the top. In a meritocracy, the individual is assumed to have "free will," and is able to go as high as his motivation, desire and ability will take him. "Any individual who does not achieve success has only himself to blame, since he did not take advantage of the means available to him"

(Carnoy, 1972, p. 1).

In the political economy of education in America, the individual blames himself for situations often beyond his control. He, nonverbally, knows that he is a failure.

Paulo Freire

The oppressors exploit the weaknesses of the oppressed (appeal to their insecurity). The oppressed resist the oppressor on one hand and are attracted to him or her at other times. The oppressors obtain positive results from divisive action (Freire, 1970, p. 141).

Freire has written that self-depreciation is often the result of oppression. Determine if the students have low self esteem. The answer will tell you about their upbringing. Is the school operated on Freire's "banking concept?" Do the students sit passively and absorb information, or are they living, moving and interacting within their school environment?

Jonathan Kozol

One of Kozol's students wrote: "I see dirty boards and I see papers on the floor. I see an old broken window with a sign on it saying Do not unlock this window are broken. And I see cracks in the walls and I see old books with ink poured all over them and I see old painting hanging on the walls. I see old alfurbet letter hanging on one nail on the wall I see a dirty fire exit. I see a old closet with supplys for the class" (Kozol, 1967, p. 159).

Ask the students to write about the school or their teachers. You will gather the nonverbal cues which they are perceiving. Kozol also states that individuals handle threat by a continual underrating

of the students. Remarks pertaining to the students would be correspondingly: they can't do it, couldn't do it, couldn't like it, or don't deserve it. By asking the teachers about the students, administrators can listen to what they are saying and begin to understand "what they are really saying."

Kozol also mentions an incident pertaining to a teacher who was a mild, nervous person. His instructions were given in a tone which made it clear that he really did not expect to be believed or obeyed. His shouts contained no force, but fear. Observe this trait in personnel (Ibid., p. 36).

Kozol wrote of the nonverbal cues transmitted by students. For example, one student showed hate by sitting with a slow smoldering look of cynical resentment. Another student's eyes told that she knew exactly what was going on. Look at people's faces and their eyes. There is a wealth of information there.

john Howard Griffin

Griffin was a man who had his skin pigment darkened and lived then in the South for a few months. Of the blacks, it was said that they knew no matter how hard they worked, they were not quite going to manage. Talk to personnel; listen to what their real "attitude" is.

Frantz Fanon

Fanon wrote that the colonized man first manifested that he had been psychologically pressured by depositing aggressiveness against his own people (Fanon, 1963, p. 42).

Go into the school and look at discipline procedures. Pressures

from within the school, community, or home can be generating frustration. Observe if there are many school fights. Watch the students leaving the building after school. Their demeanor will tell you about the discipline which they have experienced during the day. For example, a lot of restlessness might say that the school had little physical education during the day or that there was tight discipline. Observe the school in session for further information.

Fanon also stated that myths, traditions and customs were the signs of constitutional depravity in people. Look at what customs control the community. Is there a poverty of spirit?

Colin Greer

Greer has stated that the "school selects winners and losers, more losers than winners, for it is on the effective exclusion of large numbers that security of the affluent community depends" (Greer, 1972, p. 37). Look at the number of poor students graduating and their achievement. The information my cue you into various administrative philosophies and/or community feelings.

Martin Carnoy

Carnoy has written that education serves the national security and economy by getting students to accept authority (Carnoy, 1974, p. 68). Go into a school and look at the distribution of authority. This will tell you who is really in charge.

Carnoy posits that the schools were designed to produce a good industrial worker, one who had a sense of time and respected authority. The factory model of the school reinforced the factory model of society. Look and see if the schools in your community

are obviously producing workers for the local factories, etc.

Tests and guidance policies are designed to "objectify" the selecting process for people--leading them to think that they are being given the fairest deal possible within their limitations. If a person is convinced that he is not able to do well, he is less likely to rise up against the system (Ibid., p. 253).

Jules Henry

Henry wrote much about the "philosophy of the media," which assumed that the head (box) was an inert receptable. The advertiser could penetrate the box and put his information into the brain box (Henry, 1965, pp. 44, 54).

Is the school active or passive? Do the students believe that hard work, thrift, and absemiousness will pay off, or do they value fun, relaxation, and impulse release? The answer to these questions can tell you much about the family structure of the community and the influence of media in the home.

Henry wrote that the three functions of bureaucracy were: (1) to carry on tasks for which they were established, (2) to prevent internal change by roles and routinization, and (3) to perpetuate itself (Henry, 1966, p. 2). Look at the administration. A top-heavy administrative staff may suggest emphasis of one or more of these functions.

Also if there are obvious attempts at "freezing the system," this may cue insecurity in the system and feelings of vulnerability. Look at the students' test scores. Dropping scores may tell you of a lack of internal hope on the part of the students or a lack of external pressures.

Look for a breakfast program in the school. Such a program may tell you that the attitudes on which the school depends for its educational puposes are not being met at home. Thus the adminstration is attempting to rebuild the children's environment. See if the teachers are eating with the children. This will reflect the teachers' attitudes toward the program. Breakfast at school then provides a basic survival need-- from a home, perhaps, of screaming, fighting, bed wetting, and lack of sleep because of cold and rats. Obviously the children would be sleepy, hungry, and emotionally upset when coming to school (Ibid., pp. 41, 49).

Are the children taking books home with them? Do the parents come to school to visit? If so, then the school is starting to deal with the home so that the entropy of the home system is being decreased. Systems need energy from the outside to survive. Look at what is being taught in the schools. What is being presented is determined by several factors: (1) what there is to learn, (2) the objective physical and intellectual maturity of the child, (3) the attitudes toward children, and (4) the goals of the culture (Ibid., p. 140). Use of many media sources may reflect the increasing power of auxiliary agencies or the influencies of business sectors in the school for various reasons: recruiting films for the military, consumer films, etc. As a society "gears up" for major moves, for example a war, months ahead society may be shown a rash of war movies. The flow of the media into the schools can show political trends in Washington.

William Glasser

Glasser has called on students to accept responsibility for their lives. The author also wants the school system to adjust for it's weaknesses. Glasser has criticized grading (encourages cheating), objective testing (encourages rote learning and not thinking), the normal curve (increases pressures), closed-book examinations (based on the fallacy that knowledge remembered is better than knowledge looked up) and excessive, tedious homework.

Look at the school system and see if the solution to some of the problems might lie beyond operational research approaches. Glasser advocates faculty-student involvement. Some faculty might be too insecure for interaction. Others might feel that familiarity breeds contempt. What is the policy of the school environment with which you are involved?

Look at the teachers' signals of love or lack of concern. Have the students given up? Look at student efforts as a mirror of teacher expectations. Are new courses being offered in the school? A frozen curriculum may tell you that the administration fears criticism.

Emile Durkheim

Durkheim states that Kant, Mill, Herbart, and Spencer believed in one fixed human nature and that pedagogical investigation consisted of investigating how the educational influence should be exercised on human nature so defined (Durkheim, 1956, p. 115). There was therefore one education and one alone which was suitable for all men indiscrimantly. Look at the classes in your school.

Is there an open or closed concept? Such an observation will tell you about the philosophical assumptions in operation.

Durkheim wrote that "each type of people has its own education which is appropriate to it and which can serve to define it in the same way as its moral, political, and religious organizations. Its education is one of the elements of its structure" (Ibid., p. 2). Look at the school as a reflection of the community and the larger society. Durkheim posited that the school reproduced the society. The school will show what society values and wishes to perpetuate. The educational system will vary because the needs of the people will vary.

Durkheim observed: "the material and moral organization of contemporary society necessitate parallel and no less profound transformations in this particular part of our scholastic system" (Ibid., p. 142). Thus look at changes in schools as reflections of changes in society.

The sources of nonverbal materials are vast and extremely varied. Nonetheless, the major nonverbal communication systems have been examined from various vantage points. Practical applications to be gleaned from the nonverbal cues have been stressed. Finally in this document, the schools and school children have been examined in a more general, philosophical nonverbal approach.

The scope of nonverbal communication is indeed vast; nonetheless, anyone in administration needs to be informed and astute about nonverbal communications. Such knowledge is extremely important in more fully performing one's administrative assignment or simply in maintaining good interpersonal relations. Nonverbal communication is clearly woven into the very fabric of all communication systems.

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